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An Intelligent Facial Expression Recognition System Using a Hybrid Deep Convolutional Neural Network for Multimedia Applications

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Abstract: Recognizing facial expressions plays a crucial role in various multimedia applications, such as human–computer interactions and the functioning of autonomous vehicles. This paper introduces a hybrid feature extraction network model to bolster the discriminative capacity of emotional features for multimedia applications. The proposed model comprises a convolutional neural network (CNN) and deep belief network (DBN) series. First, a spatial CNN network processed static facial images, followed by a temporal CNN network. The CNNs were fine-tuned based on facial expression recognition (FER) datasets. A deep belief network (DBN) model was then applied to integrate the segment-level spatial and temporal features. Deep fusion networks were jointly used to learn spatiotemporal features for discrimination purposes. Due to its generalization capabilities, we used a multi-class support vector machine classifier to classify the seven basic emotions in the proposed model. The proposed model exhibited 98.14% recognition performance for the JaFFE database, 95.29% for the KDEF database, and 98.86% for the RaFD database. It is shown that the proposed method is effective for all three databases, compared with the previous schemes for JAFFE, KDEF, and RaFD databases.

Keywords: convolutional neural network; deep belief network; intelligent system; machine learning; human interaction



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1. Introduction

An individual's facial expressions (FEs) or countenance convey their psychological reactions and intentions in response to a social or personal event. These expressions convey non-verbal stealth messages. With technological advancements, human behavior can be understood through facial expression recognition (FER) [1]. To express emotions, humans use facial expressions as their primary nonverbal communication method [2]. Biometric authentication and nonverbal communication applications have recently drawn considerable attention to facial recognition. The movie industry has also conducted studies that predict emotions experienced during scenes. These works sought to identify a person's mood or emotion by analyzing facial expressions.

With landmarks in 2D and 3D [3], facial appearances [4], geometry [5], and 2D/3D spatiotemporal representations [6], facial models can be developed. Review papers provide comprehensive reviews [6–8]. It is also possible to categorize approaches based on images, deep learning, and model-based approaches. Engineered topographies such as HOGs [9], local binary pattern histograms (LBPHs) [10], and Gabor filters [11] are used in many image-based approaches.

The most recent works in this field focus on hand-engineered features, but various techniques have been developed [12–15]. In today's image processing and computer

vision applications, deep neural networks are the best choice due to the variety and size of datasets [16–18]. Conventional deep networks can easily handle spatial images [18]. Traditional feature extraction and classification schemes are computationally complex and difficult to use for achieving high recognition rates. A DNN based on convolutional coatings and residuals is proposed in this paper for recognizing facial emotions [19,20]. By learning the subtle features of each expression, the proposed model can distinguish them [21,22]. The proposed model presents a facial emotion classification report, along with the confusion matrix derived from the image dataset.

Afterwards, Section 2 presents a literature review with a deeper look at facial expression recognition based on deep learning. DBN and spatiotemporal CNN are integrated into Section 3 of the future model methodology. Section 4 grants the two sub-sections, the first sections present the three datasets, and the second section presents the untried outcomes and analysis. In the last section, we present the conclusion of the paper.

2. Literature Review

Human emotions are expressed through facial expressions in social communication. Three orthogonal planes are used to extract local binary pattern features (LBP-TOP) [23]. Based on computed histograms, the proposed LBP-TOP operator determines expression features from video sequences from three orthogonal planes. The author classified expressions using video sequences based on the extracted features of LBP-TOPs using a machine learning (ML) classifier. According to [24], fuzzy ARTMAP neural networks (FAMNNs) are used for VFER. In addition, particle swarm optimization (PSO) has been used to determine hyperparameters for the FAMNN network. A definite method [25] categorizes emotions based on their types, such as sadness, happiness, fear, and anger, according to the dimensional method [26].

SVM has also been used to categorize facial expressions [27]. Using 15 different feature points and their representations of neutral faces, the authors proposed a method measuring Euclidean distances between them. In the JAFFE dataset, 92% of the datasets are recognized, while in the CK dataset, 86.33% are recognized. These facial expression classification results demonstrate the effectiveness of SVMs in recognizing emotions. Also, SVMs have been employed for formalizing faces [28] and recognizing faces [29,30].

A large sample size is essential for developing algorithms for automatically recognizing facial expressions and related tasks. CK [31] and MMI [32] are three facial expression databases used to test and evaluate expression recognition algorithms. There are many databases where participants are asked to present certain facial expressions (e.g., frowns) rather than naturally occurring expressions (e.g., smiles). A spontaneous facial expression does not follow the same spatial or temporal pattern as a deliberately posed expression [33]. Over 90% of facial expressions can be detected by several algorithms. However, it is much harder to recognize spontaneous expressions [21,34]. A naturalistic setting is the best place for automatic FER. The working flow of FER methods [35], their integral and intermediate steps, and pattern structures are thoroughly analyzed and surveyed in this study in order to address these missing aspects. Furthermore, the limitations of existing FER surveys are discussed. A detailed analysis of FER datasets follows, followed by a discussion of the challenges and problems related to these datasets.

Deep-Learning-Based Face Recognition

During the training process, deep learning can auto-learn the new features based on stored information, thus minimizing the need to train the system repeatedly for new features. As deep learning algorithms do not require manual preprocessing, they can also handle large amounts of data. Recurrent neural networks (RNNs) and convolutional neural networks (CNNs) are two algorithms used in deep learning [36].

With RNN, relative dependencies with images are learned by recollecting information about past inputs, which is an advantage over CNN. It is widely used to combine RNNs and CNNs for image processing tasks, such as image recognition [37] and segmentation [38].

When input successions and hidden states are mapped to yields, a recurrent neural network (RNN) learns quick progression. In their paper, the authors proposed an improved method for representing spatial–temporal dependencies between two signals [39]. The CNN model is used in various fields, such as IOT [40], offloading [41], speech recognition [42], and traffic sign recognition [43].

A CNN and an RNN are combined in the HDCR-NN [25]. A facial expression classification system is adapted to it. Hybridizing convolutional neural networks [44] and recurrent neural networks [45] are automatically motivated by their wide acceptance of learning feature attributes. We used the Japanese Female Facial Expression (JAFPE) and Karolinska Directed Emotional Faces (KDEF) datasets to evaluate the proposed methodology.

Using cross-channel convolutional neural networks (CC-CNNs), the authors [46] propose a method for calculating VFER. The author of [47] proposes a method for VFER based on hierarchical bidirectional recurrent neural networks (PHRNNs). In their proposed framework (MSCNN), spatial information was extracted from still frames of an expression sequence using an MSCNN. Combining PHRNN and MSCNN further enhances VFER by extracting dynamic stills, parts and wholes, and geometry appearance information. An effective VFER method was demonstrated by combining spatiotemporal fusion and transfer learning. CNNs and RNNs are combined in the FER to incorporate audio and visual expressions.

An alternative to deep-learning-based methods used for recognizing facial emotions was proposed with a simple machine learning method [48]. Regional distortions are useful for analyzing facial expressions. On top of the convolutional neural network, they trained a manifold network to learn a variety of facial distortions. A set of low-level features has been considered for inferring human action [49] rather than only trying to extract facial features. An entropy-based method used for facial emotion classification was developed by [50]. An innovative method for recognizing facial expressions from videos was presented by [51]. Multiple feature descriptors have described face and motion information. To exploit complementary and discriminative distance metrics, we carried out the learning of multiple distance metrics. An ANN that learns and fuses the spatial–temporal features was proposed by [52]. The authors [50] proposed several preprocessing steps to recognize facial expressions.

3. Methodology

The proposed model comprises a convolutional neural network (CNN) and deep belief networks (DBNs). The spatial CNN network uses static facial images, followed by a temporal CNN network. After that, CNNs are fine-tuned based on facial expression recognition (FER) datasets. As a next step, the spatial and temporal characteristics of the segments are integrated using a deep belief network (DBN) model. Our hybrid deep learning model is shown in Figure 1. An optical flow network processes images generated between successive frame frames generated by a spatial CNN network, as shown in Figure 1. Using deep DBN models, these two CNN outputs are fused with the output of a fusion network. The CNN requires a fixed input data size, so each video sample is divided into several fixed-length segments. A fixed-length segment of $L = 16$ is created for each video sample.

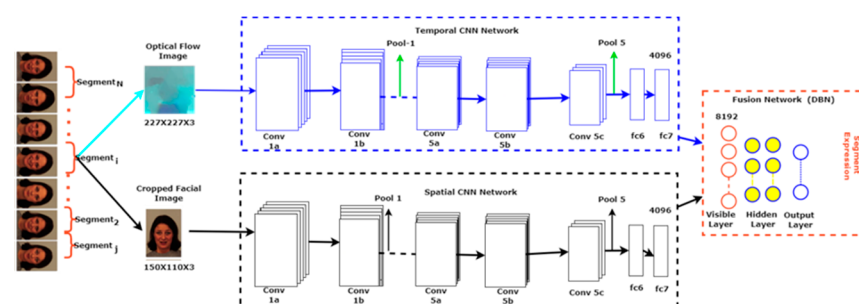


Figure 1. Facial expression model based on deep hybrid learning.

3.1. Image Resizing

Bilinear interpolation is used to resize the input image to a standard size. The real-life image size may vary, requiring the image to be resized. Displaying images on different devices requires image resizing. Resizing images is necessary for optimal display. Here, the image size is modified to attain a better outcome. The resized image is expressed as

$$R(F_i) = \{R(F_1), R(F_2), R(F_3), \dots, R(F_n)\} \quad (1)$$

where $R(F_i)$ indicates the resizing of the facial image and $R(F_n)$ indicates the resizing of the n -number of facial images. Finally, the facial images are resized into $227 \times 227 \times 3$ for spatial CNN inputs. The first frame of a video segment $L = 16$ is discarded, and the remaining 15 frames are used as inputs for spatial CNNs.

3.2. Spatiotemporal Feature Learning with CNNs

The spatial and temporal CNNs are used same structure as VGG16 [53], which has five convolution layers (Conv1a-Conv1b, Conv2a-Conv2b, Conv3a-Conv3b-Conv3c-..., Conv5a, and Conv5b-Conv5c), five max-pooling pools (Pool1, Pool2, and Pool3), and the FC layer consists of three layers (FC6, FC7, and FC8). The fc6 and fc7 represent 4096 units each, whereas fc8 represents data category labels. The VGG16 consists of 1000 image categories in the fc8 layer as shown in Figure 2.

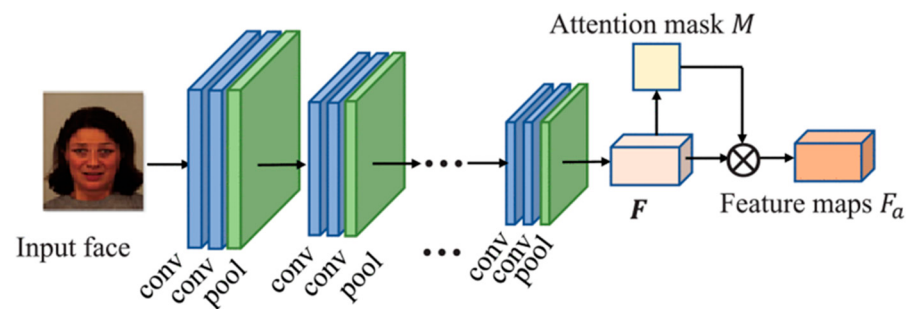


Figure 2. The CNN architecture for the proposed model.

Using CNNs, the VGG16 [53] learned spatiotemporal features from the video data of on-target facial expressions. Using pre-trained VGG16 parameters, both the temporal and spatial CNN networks are initialized. The facial expression category vectors in VGG16 are replaced with six new class label vectors. We then retrain each CNN stream individually using the backpropagation method. Backpropagation can solve the following minimization problem by updating the CNN network parameters:

$$\min_{w, \theta} \sum_{i=1}^N H(\text{softmax}(W \cdot \gamma(a_i; v)), y_i), \quad (2)$$

The network parameter v determines the weights of W , whether the CNN is a spatial CNN or temporal. Input data (a_i) are represented by $\gamma(v; v)$, which have 4096-D outputs of fc7, and the segment class label vector i^{th} is represented by y_i

$$H(v, y) = - \sum_{j=1}^C y_j \log(y_j), \quad (3)$$

In the fc7 layers of spatial and temporal CNNs, high-level features are represented as learned representations of input face images following training.

3.3. Spatiotemporal Fusion with DBNs

A deep DBN model was constructed by concatenating the outputs of the spatial and temporal CNNs in the fc7 layers [54]. The FER is represented using a deep DBN model based on a combination of discriminative features.

RBMs are bipartite graphs stacked in DBN models to form multilayered neural networks [55]. Two RBMs comprised two hidden layers and one visible layer. This illustrates the structure of a DBN by showing two RBMs with two hidden layers, and DBNs can be used to learn multilayer generative models using multiple RBMs. Multiple RBMs can be used to learn multilayer generative models. Thus, DBNs can be used to discover distribution properties and learn hierarchical feature representations.

The DBN fusion network is trained in two steps [56].

1. As a bottom-up method of unsupervised pretraining, greedy layer-wise training is used. The logarithm of the probability of derivatives is used to update the weights of each RBM model:

$$\Delta w = \varepsilon (\langle v_i h_j \rangle_{data} - \langle v_i h_j \rangle_{model}) \quad (4)$$

The learning rate ε is represented by ε , while the data expectation is represented by $\langle \cdot \rangle$. A v_i indicates that a node is visible and a h_j indicates that a node is hidden.

2. Network parameters are updated through the supervised fine-tuning stage with backpropagation. Specifically, supervised fine-tuning can be achieved by comparing input data to the reconstructed data using the following loss function.

$$L(x, x') = \|x, x'\|_2^2 \quad (5)$$

A reconstruction error $\| \cdot \|_2^2$ is the L2-norm reconstruction error, where x and x' are the input data.

3.4. Classification

It is the classification component that completes the proposed AFER system. A supervised machine learning technique is used to accomplish this operation. A variety of algorithms can be used, including artificial neural networks (ANNs), k-NNs, decision trees, or deep learning techniques (such as CNNs) [57,58]. The author of [59] proposed the SVM classifier for this study. Several fields have shown this classifier's accuracy over the years. Datasets that are small and medium will be more suitable for this method. Recognizing unlabeled data will require the SVM classifier to be trained with labelled data. It is important to determine the ideal hyperplane in order to separate two datasets with two distinct classes during the learning phase of an SVM.

To separate the members of one class from those of another, a hyperplane is constructed using the input space transformed into a higher-dimensional feature space. Based on statistical learning theory, it is a useful classification method. The data can be separated using many hyperplanes. To prevent misclassifications, only one can attain the maximum margin when determining the type of data, and the new data that belong to. $S = \{x_i, d_i\} | i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$ are usual for N training designs, with $x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, \dots, x_{in}) \in R^n$ being an input vector indicating a space in which to enter data and $d_i \in \{-1, 1\}$ indicating the class of the label x_i . The linear separability of S is assumed. Optimally separating the hyperplane with maximum margins is imperative to generalizing a linear SVM well. In particular, the SVM locates the optimal hyperplane for the pair (w, b) by maximizing the margin $2/\|w\|$. Between $wx + b = 1$ and $wx + b = -1$, the perpendicular hyperplane of w points towards the separating plane and $b \in R$.

In this example, (w_0, b_0) corresponds to a separating hyperplane for S that is optimal. An SVM using linear decision functions can be calculated using a decision function f

$$f(x) = \text{sgn}(w_0 x^t + b_0) \quad (6)$$

A sign function and matrix transpose operator are represented by $\text{sgn}(\cdot)$ and t , respectively.

This introduces the following optimization problem when classifying non-separable data linearly with several slack variables ξ_i .

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Minimize } \frac{1}{2} W^T W + C \sum_{i=1}^N \xi_i \\ & \text{Subject to } d_i(W^T x_i) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \xi_i \geq 0, i = 1, \dots, N. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

It also acts as the regularization parameter for the SVM classifier, penalizing vectors incorrectly classified or within the margin.

A solution based on optimization $\bar{\alpha} = (\bar{\alpha}_1, \bar{\alpha}_2, \dots, \bar{\alpha}_N)$ can be used to calculate the pair $(\bar{w}, \bar{b})$. This formula can be used to rewrite the nonlinear SVM decision function f :

$$f(x) = \text{sgn}(w^{-t}x + \bar{b}) = \text{sgn}\left(\sum_{i=1}^N \bar{\alpha}_i d_i K(x_i, x) + \bar{b}\right) \quad (8)$$

In a transformed space, $K(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the kernel function used for fitting the maximum margin hyperplane. This paper uses the Gaussian radial basis function (GRBF) to specify kernel functions. For vector operations, the $K(x_i, x_j) = \exp\left(-\frac{(x_i - x_j)^2}{2y^2}\right)$ GRBF spread is given by y , while the L_2 norm is given by $\|\cdot\|$.

A simplified version of the SVM is illustrated in Equation (9).

$$y_i = \text{sign}((w, x_i) + b) \quad (9)$$

A maximum margin hyperplane is represented by (w, x_i) , a bias is represented by b , a feature vector is represented by $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, and the labels are represented by $y_i \in \{\pm 1\}$. SVMs typically use kernels to handle nonlinear data, but we use linear SVMs. Furthermore, binary classifiers cannot distinguish between the six basic emotions of AFER. A multi-class SVM classifier is therefore formed by combining six binary SVM classifiers.

4. Experiments Analysis

The proposed model was evaluated based on the three publicly available datasets. It is typically necessary to preprocess an input for optimization purposes. First, 16 facial frames were extracted from the landmarks of the face. A face region was resized into $227 \times 227 \times 3$ in order for the next processing block, namely feature extraction, to be applied.

4.1. Dataset

Three publicly available databases were used to evaluate the proposed method: the JAFFE [60], RaFD [61,62], and KDEF [63] databases. Face images and challenging conditions were included in these databases.

Japanese Female Facial Expression (JAFFE): These databases contain various face images and challenging conditions. A sequence of 2–4 samples was provided for each expression, and the images were 256×256 pixels in size. In Figure 3, sample data from the JAFFE database are presented. As shown in Table 1, each prototypical expression had several images in the databases.

Table 1. The used facial expression datasets.

Dataset	FE	AN	DI	HA	SA	SU	NE	Total	Resolution
JAFFE	30	30	28	29	30	30	30	207	256×256
KDEF	140	140	140	140	140	140	140	980	562×762
RaFD	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	469	681×1024



Figure 3. A sample facial expression sequence of the JAFFE dataset.

Radboud Faces Database (RaFD): 67 face models expressing basic emotions were represented in this database with 536 images. FACS experts trained all face models to express prototypical basic emotions. Additionally, all pictures were validated by FACS coders and 238 non-expert judges ($N = 238$) [60]. Twenty-seventy-three pictures were included in this study of 39 white adults expressing anger (AN), disgust (DI), neutrality (NE), fear (FE), sadness (SA), happiness (HA), and surprise (SU). A Caucasian face seemed to be more accurate with algorithms for facial expression analysis than a non-Caucasian face. White faces allow comparisons with previous validations of emotional facial expression categorization methods [63] and across different facial databases [64]. The sample figures of the RaFD datasets are presented in Figure 4.



Figure 4. A sample facial expression sequence of the RaFD dataset.

Karolinska Directed Emotional Faces (KDEF): The KDEF [63] database trained and tested our models for emotion recognition. Each individual in the corpus displayed seven different emotional expressions from five perspectives. The group comprised 70 individuals aged 20–30 (35 men and 35 women). The images were all taken in a controlled environment with fixed image coordinates for eye and mouth placements [63], as shown in Figure 5.



Figure 5. A sample facial expression sequence of the KDEF dataset.

4.2. Performance Metric

The accuracy, precision, recall, and F1 score of the proposed were assessed through cross-validation. By using the confusion matrix, the following matrices could be calculated: true positives (*TP*) are predictions that are positive and their actual data are positive; true negatives (*TN*) are predictions that are negative and their actual data are also negative; false positives (*FP*) are predictions that are positive but their actual results are negative; and false negatives (*FN*) are predictions that are negative but their actual results are positive. Equations (10)–(13) can be used to measure the accuracy, precision, recall, and *F1-score* [64].

$$Accuracy = \frac{(TP + TN)}{(TP + TN + FN + FP)} \quad (10)$$

$$Recall = \frac{(TP)}{(TP + FN)} \quad (11)$$

$$Precision = \frac{(TP)}{(TP + FP)} \quad (12)$$

$$F1 - Score = \frac{(2 \times P \times R)}{(P + R)} \quad (13)$$

4.3. Analysis and Discussion of Results

Three datasets were used in the proposed facial expression recognition model, and Figure 6 displays the confusion matrix. The JAFFEE model (Figure 6a) had the best overall results in terms of confusion matrix, followed by the KDEF and RaFD datasets (Figure 6c). According to the results, the “happy” class had the highest score, regardless of the model. This good prediction was due to two crucial factors: a large dataset and high variance. Training samples are important when highlighting the crucial features of a complex future. This can be seen by the fact that the neutral class overtook the happy class in the training samples. Although it had the largest share of the dataset, the “neutral” class failed to generalize as well as others. In the same way, anger, sadness, and surprise classes were compared. The classes shared the same proportion of data from the dataset, but their accuracy changed.

In all these observations, emotion variance played a significant role. The confusion matrix also demonstrates the similarity of emotion variation. It is easy to mistake fear for surprise and sad for neutrality. The “angry” and “sad” classes, for example, had a relatively low variance in mouth and eyebrow shape, which led to a significant number of images being classified as “neutral”. The shape of the mouth did not change significantly, while the displacement of the eyebrows was hard to distinguish using the CNN model. Interestingly, the same results were not found vice versa, probably because there were so many training samples.

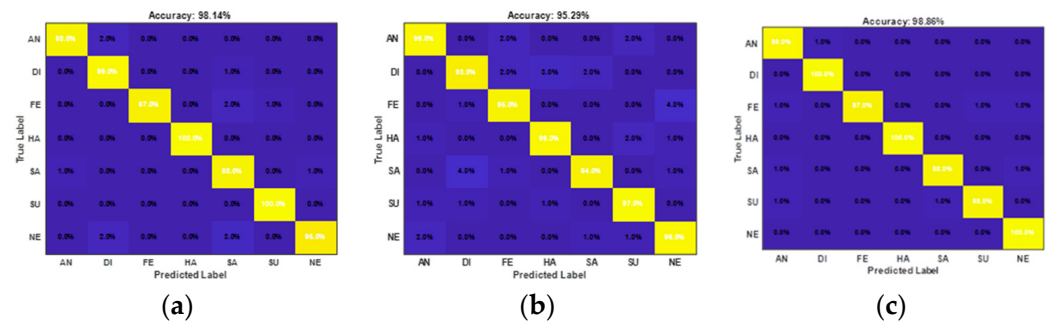


Figure 6. Confusion matrix for (a) JAFFE; (b) KDEF, and (c) RaFD datasets.

Three databases were used to run the proposed model. The proposed model produced intermediate feature maps, as shown in Table 2. Based on the confusion matrix given by the JAFFE, KDEF, and RaFD databases, Table 2 shows a classification report. Averaging the classification reports of each database 10-fold produced the classification report. A comparison was also made between the obtained results and those of existing state-of-the-art methods.

We compared the proposed model with the other approaches shown in Table 3 and Figure 7. The proposed model showed a 98.18% accuracy score for the JAFFE dataset. The last model is a fusion of several models corresponding to a method's accuracy. Existing models were outperformed by the proposed method. The proposed model combines deep belief networks (DBNs) with facial landmark coordinates to extract hybrid features superior to other deep-learning-based approaches. It is more accurate to classify expressions based on hybrid features. A spatiotemporal CNN with DBN can capture a relative correlation between facial landmarks associated with expressions based on landmark coordinates.

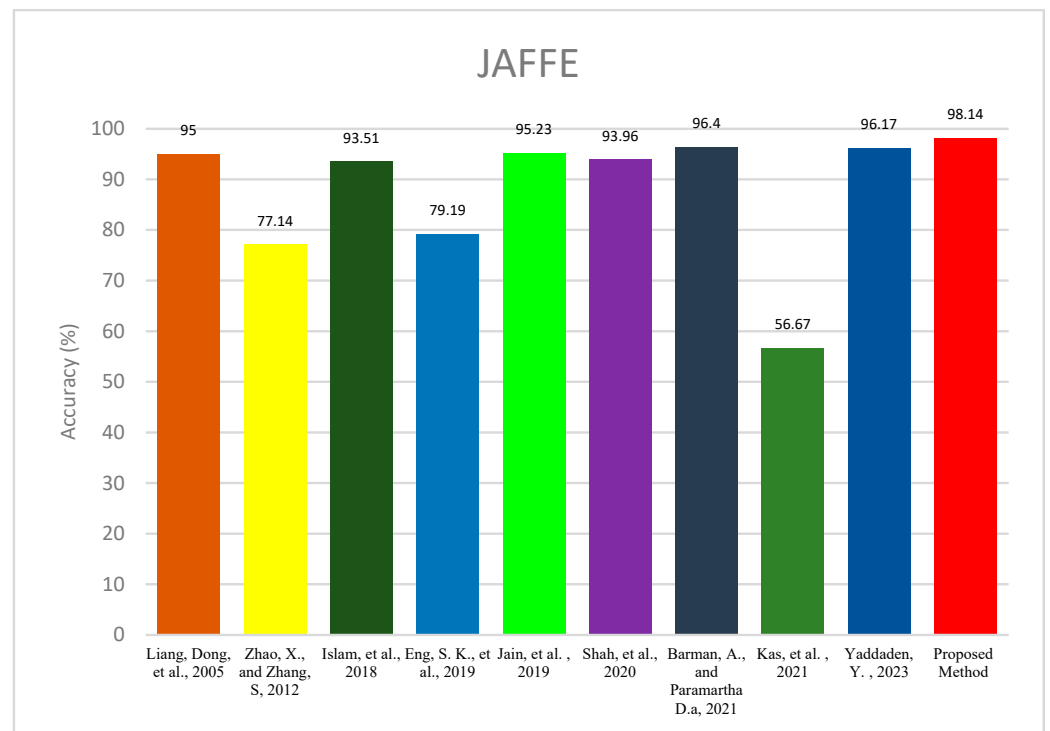


Figure 7. Graphical view of comparative analysis with state-of-the-art methods for the JAFFE dataset [57,65–72].

Table 2. Recognition rate (%) of the proposed model for the JAFFE, KDEF, and RaFD datasets.

Classes	JAFFE			KDEF			RaFD		
	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	Precision	Recall	F1-Score
NE	97.49	98.1	98.97	95.88	96.3	96.23	97.14	99.0	0.9832
AN	99.1	99.3	99.00	94.97	93.8	94.18	98.29	99.8	99.48
DI	97.73	97.2	97.43	94.11	95.4	94.97	95.97	96.9	96.90
FE	99.82	99.4	8.96	95.55	96.2	96.51	99.08	98.3	98.39
HA	96.39	97.9	97.11	95.80	94.2	95.12	98.95	99.2	99.56
SA	99.97	99.7	99.58	97.04	97.2	97.10	98.85	98.5	98.47
SU	95.79	95.6	95.71	95.27	95.8	95.83	99.50	99.1	98.84

Table 3. Comparing state-of-the-art methods for the JAFFE dataset.

Authors	Reference Number	Year of Study	Accuracy (%)
Liang, Dong, et al.	[67]	2005	95
Zhao, X., and Zhang, S	[68]	2012	77.14
Islam, et al.	[71]	2018	93.51
Eng, S.K., et al.	[70]	2019	79.19
Jain, et al.	[57]	2019	95.23
Shah, et al.	[65]	2020	93.96
Barman, A., and Paramartha D.a	[66]	2021	96.4
Kas, et al.	[69]	2021	56.67
Yaddaden, Y.	[72]	2023	96.17
Ahmed J. and Hassanain K.	Proposed model	2023	98.14

For the KDEF dataset, Table 4 compares the proposed model and the other FER models. A graphical representation of the comparison results is shown in Figure 8, and their accuracy scores are listed in Table 4. VGG19 [69] achieved an accuracy score of 76.73%. Another author's [72] model showed higher accuracy than the existing model, but the proposed models showed better results from all of these models. The proposed model on the EDEF database achieved a 95.29% accuracy rate. According to the authors [72], their model outperformed previous methods, proving its effectiveness.

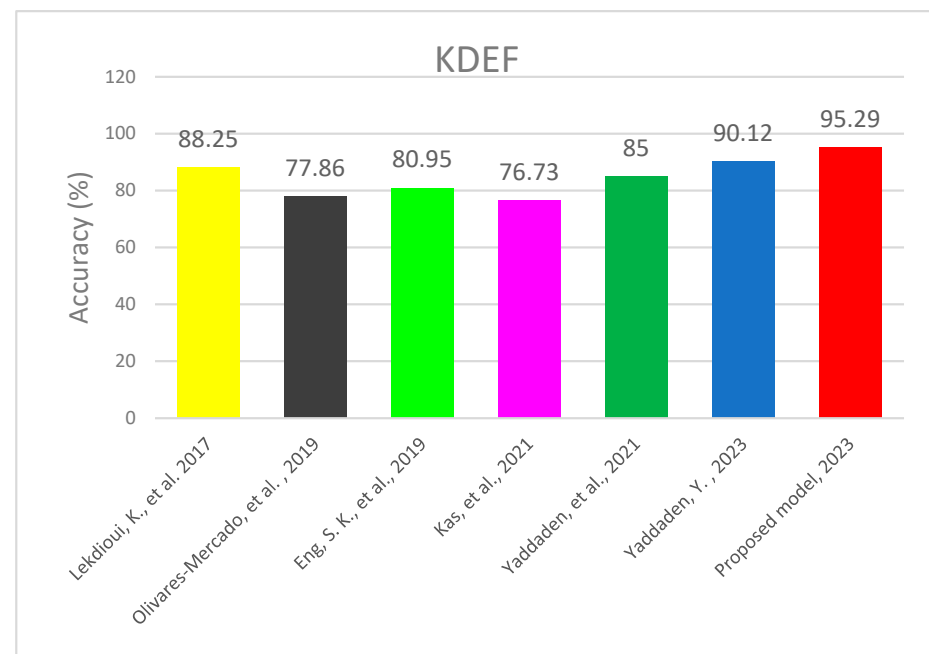
**Figure 8.** Graphical view of comparative analysis with state-of-the-art methods for the KDEF dataset [69,70,72–75].

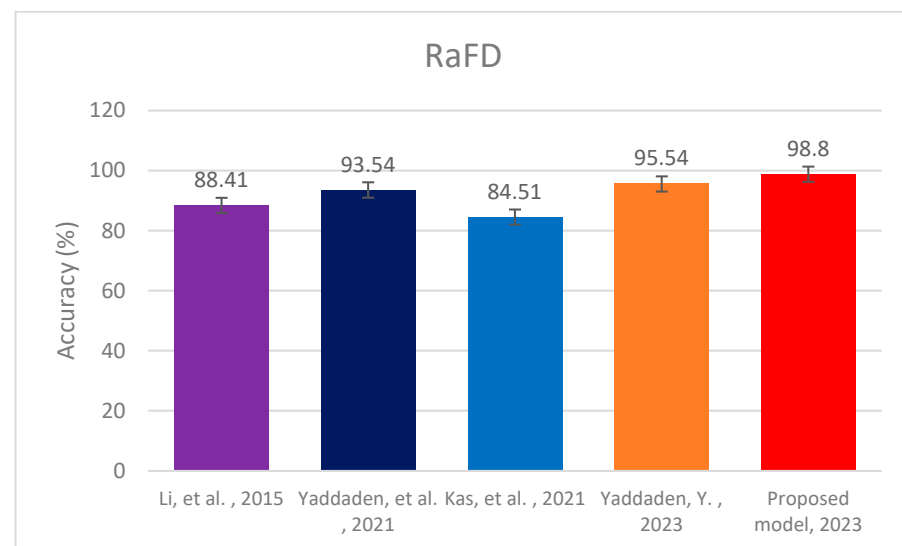
Table 4. Comparing state-of-the-art methods for the KDEF dataset.

Authors	Reference Number	Year of Study	Accuracy
Lekdioui, K., et al.	[75]	2017	88.25
Olivares-Mercado, et al.	[73]	2019	77.86
Eng, S.K., et al.	[70]	2019	80.95
Kas, et al.	[69]	2021	76.73
Yaddaden, et al.	[74]	2021	85
Yaddaden, Y.	[72]	2023	90.12
Ahmed J. and Hassanain K.	Proposed model	2023	95.29

Using the RaFD dataset, the proposed method was compared to the other approaches. The correctness of 93.54% was achieved by combining CNNs, LBPs, and hog descriptors using another author's [74] model, as shown in Table 5 and Figure 9. Meanwhile, Ref. [76] presented an approach that can be used to recognize facial expressions in partial occlusion using Gabor filters and GLCM, which averages an accuracy score of 88.41%. According to ResNet50 [69], a person-independent FER framework was proposed that combines 49 landmarks' shapes and textural features to achieve 84.51% accuracy. The proposed method achieved 98.8% average accuracy compared to the other methods described above.

Table 5. Comparing state-of-the-art methods for the RaFD dataset.

Authors	Reference Number	Year of Study	Accuracy
Li, et al.	[76]	2015	88.41
Yaddaden, et al.	[74]	2021	93.54
Kas, et al.	[69]	2021	84.51
Yaddaden, Y.	[72]	2023	95.54
Ahmed J. and Hassanain K.	Proposed Method	2023	98.8

**Figure 9.** Graphical view of comparative analysis with state-of-the-art methods for the RaFD dataset [69,72,74,76].

Tables 3–5 show that our proposed model outperformed most previously studied models, although we used the same descriptors. There is a gap in accuracy among the three benchmark facial expression datasets. This improvement has been largely attributed to a multi-class SVM classifier and a CNN with DBN network models.

5. Conclusions

To effectively calculate the most important activities in effective calculations, people–computer interactions, machine vision, and consumer research into those facial expressions were processed. A person’s facial expressions reveal their inner feelings and emotions, making them a form of nonverbal communication. This paper presented an efficient FER system using hybrid CNN with a DBN network. This model uses a dual-integrated CNN (CNN-DBN) that incorporates complementary knowledge from two CNN models trained independently on the FER datasets. Three publicly available FER datasets (JAFEE, KDEF, and RaFD) were used to evaluate the proposed model. A comparative analysis of the results shows that the proposed model performs better than the existing models in terms of classification reports.

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